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"The teacher is beginning to recognize more clearly the importance of study for the sake of information as distinguished from that of method study. This differ-

ence is the old bone of contention between the normal school and the college. A radical step, and one which seems to acknowledge this general principle, has been taken during the past year in the city of Chicago. The city normal school, whose function it is to train teachers for the elementary field, has advanced its course of study to three years, and has made its requirement for admission coördinate with that of the leading colleges in the country. . . . This need of broader scholarship has nowhere been more deeply appreciated than among the teachers themselves, and in testimony of this statement we need only recall the interest and support of that great multitude of elementary teachers who spend a part of their vacations in the summer schools and colleges. The encouragement of summer study by the superintendents of the great cities, and the avidity with which such opportunities have been seized, present a situation heretofore unknown; and one from which the greatest possible results may be expected. It is not method study simply that these teachers hunger for; it is rather information on special subjects in which they have discovered their weakness."

The sooner the old type of normal school is banished from our educational systems, the healthier our pedagogical condition will be. That normal school work should be, in any radical sense, different from the regular academic work of the college or other higher institution, is one of the most mischievous notions that ever obtained a foothold in our educational theory. After a while, we shall come to realize that pedagogy itself is a good deal of a fetich, and that the really educated teacher knows by instinct about all that he needs to know of the art of teaching.

The subject of secondary education occupies a large space — but not larger than is commensurate with its importance — in Dr. Harper's survey.

"It is thought by some of the ablest representatives of secondary education in New England that the experience of the past year includes as an encouraging feature, the change on the part of the colleges to revert to the old standards of requirements which laid emphasis upon power and discipline rather than upon technical knowledge. It is believed that a beginning in this direction has already been observed, and that there exists a widespread conviction that such a course is required by sound doctrine. Certain western institutions have laid emphasis upon this point for several years. It is gratifying to note that the recognition of this principle is gaining ground in the New England colleges. The principle involved is one essential to the best interests of secondary education, and unless this principle is adopted unreservedly, secondary training will not only lose a large share of its value, but in many cases prove distinctly injurious. The tendency toward the introduction of elective work in secondary schools has unquestionably increased during this past year. In so far as such election is virtually an arrangement of studies in groups of closely connected subjects, no exception to it may be taken; but to the proposition that the average secondary student is able, even with the parents' help, to select his subjects, and that such selection, because it is an election on his part, is preferable to the grouping of subjects which the best experience has approved, the writer desires to enter earnest protest — a protest based upon experience with students of a still maturer age. It has been my experience, after careful study of the facts as brought to light in the operation of different systems, that the average boy or girl in the freshman or sophomore college years exhibits an utter inability to make wise decision between various courses of instruction. The choice will be determined, in a majority of instances, by the hour of recitation, or some statement concerning the course by a fellow-student. Least of all does he have in mind the relationship of the course to the work which lies before him. I am, therefore, strongly of the opinion that, unless the choice of subject in secondary work is practically controlled by the principal, election will prove injurious rather than helpful."

This condemnation of the absurdity of turning boys and girls loose upon a course of study, to patch up their own programmes in accordance with their own whims, might profitably be made more emphatic than it is; and with the condemnation there should be coupled some more or less sarcastic comment upon the solemn nonsense which is commonly advanced as argument in behalf of the elective system.

The growth of secondary education in this country is one of the most striking phenomena of recent years. Within a decade the number of high-school students has doubled, the great majority of students who enter college come from high-schools, the number of such schools is increasing rapidly in every state, and the scope of the high-school curriculum is being extended every year.

"These schools have come to occupy a unique field independent of higher institutions. In many sections of the country the work is coördinate with the work of the smaller colleges, and the preparatory schools connected with the smaller colleges no longer occupy their former place of importance and dignity. In fact, the high school is rapidly coming to be a rival of the smaller college itself. In some states the high school now does the work of the freshman year, and even some of the work of the sophomore year, this being recognized and accepted by the state universities. This tendency, while subversive of the relationships which have hitherto existed between college and preparatory school, and while injurious in the extreme to the growth and development of the smaller college, is a tendency which is invaluable and which deserves encouragement. It is a movement in the interests of economy, of better secondary education, and of better and broader higher education. The time is coming when, in every state, the leading high schools will carry the work to the end of the sophomore year in college. Nothing can be said in justification of the policy of stopping at an earlier point than this."

Upon the controverted question of the simplification of college degrees, Dr. Harper argues, with convincing logic, for the preservation of

the distinction, at present still generally made, between the two or three fundamental types of intellectual training.

"There are those who believe that the distinctions proposed in the different degrees are distinctions based upon real differences; that a course the larger part of which is in science may properly be called a course in science, and the degree given be a degree in science. The word 'science' is one which its enthusiastic advocates should honor by use rather than dishonor by rejection. By the side of the old college of arts, the characteristic feature of which was the study of the classics, there have grown up two sister colleges: that of science, and that of modern history and literature. Surely this fact may well be recognized; and nothing is gained by adapting the old degree to the new college, when it is so easy to employ a degree the name of which explains itself. This step can hardly be regarded as a forward step in education. The breaking down of real distinctions means backward movement, not progress."

We thoroughly agree with the writer in this opinion, believing that the arts degree has a prestige peculiarly its own, which it is entitled to preserve. The degree in science may win for itself, in some instances has already won for itself, a like prestige; but it should not usurp the distinctive badge of a fundamentally different discipline.

The freedom of university teaching finds a staunch friend in Dr. Harper, and he sees reason for encouragement in the fact that the public strongly espouses the cause of the professor who is made, or ever seems to be made, the victim of official persecution.

"Every month of the last twelve months has added to the security and permanence of the professor in the prosecution of his work. Every month has added to his dignity and to the importance which attaches to his words. Every month has made it clearer that public sentiment is on the side of the professor in any contest entered into with the institution of which he is a member. Within five years the sentiment has become almost universal that, once a man is appointed to do work in a university, the university is responsible for the appointment, but not for the views which the man later may propound. Gradually, but surely, even the common people are coming to perceive the difference between the university and the individual professors who form its staff. The time has not yet come, to be sure, when the people make distinctions of this same kind between the president of an institution and the institution itself. It is still wrongly understood that the words of a president must be words carrying with them the force and influence and authority of the university as a whole. Ten years from now in the West and Northwest, men will be able to make this additional distinction. But great has been the progress which has thus far obtained in the attitude of the public toward the individual professor."

A professor may abuse his position by promulgating crude ideas in a sensational way, by speaking authoritatively on matters outside of his own special department of work, or by assuming a partisan attitude toward controverted subjects. But even then his position remains sacred. There are only two causes that justify a demand for the resignation of a professor in full university standing.

"His resignation will be demanded, and will be accepted, when, in the opinion of those in authority, he has been guilty of immorality, or when for any reason he has proved himself to be incompetent to perform the service called for."

In view of the fact that the institution of which Dr. Harper is the administrative head has been widely, although unjustly, accused of interfering with the free expression of opinion, it is well that this emphatic disclaimer should be made.

The recent transfer of the control of higher education from the clergy to the laity is an important development, and invites the following comment:

"In the Association of American Universities only one institution is under the administration of a clergyman; that one is the Roman Catholic University at Washington, and is essentially a theological institution. Special attention was drawn to this fact in the address of Mr. Eliot at the Columbia celebration. The significance of it is self-evident, and, when coupled with the fact that so small a number of college graduates in our universities now plan for the profession of preaching, the significance grows even more startling. Moreover, from no quarter, not even from the clergy, do we find criticism of this policy. It seems to meet with general favor and approval. Surely, if anywhere, the old régime would have continued in Princeton; but even at Princeton the new policy has been adopted. The fact is itself a commentary upon the function and place of higher education in the public mind. It does not mean that our institutions of learning are any less religious either in fact or in theory, for it may be confidently maintained that never, in the history of higher education, has the religious spirit prevailed more widely, or extended more deeply, than at present. It does not mean that questions of ethics or of philosophy occupy a less prominent place than in former years. It does not mean that biblical instruction is now taking a secondary place in comparison with that which it has hitherto occupied; for here again, as everyone knows, never before in the history of college education have biblical studies occupied the place in academic instruction which they hold to-day. But if it does not mean these things, what does it mean? Simply that the work of education is itself a profession, separate and distinct from preaching. In truth, the position of the university president has become a unique position, a profession by itself; one the demands of which are greater perhaps than those made upon any other profession. This new phase is a growth of the last two decades. What its future development will be no one can prophesy; but it stands out to-day as distinct from the office of the clergy, on the one hand, as from that of the specialist in any department of science, on the other. The college president must be a specialist, and he must also be a generalist. Scholarship is expected of him; at the same time, thorough business training. The capacity for desk work is de-

manded, and, besides, skill in public speaking; and, above all, if not knowledge of all things, at least sympathy with all knowledge. The past year has made large contribution to the further differentiation of this new character in modern life."

The closing section of this address is devoted to a consideration of the Carnegie and Rhodes foundations — "the two greatest single events in the history of higher education during . . . the past ten years." Concerning the former of these gifts, after expressing the opinion that the "gift to Scotch universities up to the present time has resulted in far greater injury than good to those institutions and to the cause of education in that country," Dr. Harper goes on to say:

"The Carnegie fund has been established for research and ought to contribute largely to institutional coöperation; but if, instead of encouraging the work of research and investigation as already established in our institutions of learning, it endeavors to detach such work from those institutions and to gather to itself the responsibility and the credit for such work; if, instead of strengthening the work where it already exists, it undertakes to establish new foundations, independent of these institutions, in order that its own work may be more tangible, it will prove to be the greatest curse to higher education in this country instead of a blessing."

With what is said of the Rhodes scholarship endowment we are compelled to take sharp issue. First of all we read:

"If the Rhodes scholarships are to be employed to detach from the American environment one hundred or more young men of special ability each year and transport them to foreign soil in order to imbue them with foreign ideas at an age when they are peculiarly impressionable; if the purpose of this foundation is to draw all men to a recognition of the doctrine of imperialism as it is embodied in the British Empire, the execution of this trust may prove a curse instead of a blessing to those who avail themselves of its privileges."

This is a piece of *ad captandum* reasoning which has the demagogic flavor of the newspaper editorial, and is quite unworthy of the president of a great university. We must take still more serious exception to what follows. When the announcement of the Rhodes bequest was made, we at once pointed out that our university leaders would probably attempt to influence a diversion of the fund from the object clearly in the mind of the giver. A number of subsequent utterances from university men have already realized our prediction, and to this number Dr. Harper's suggestion must now be added. In saying that "the form of the gift is sufficiently indefinite to make it possible to modify the original proposition and to permit these scholarships to be for graduate work rather than for undergraduate work," he completely misrepresents the terms of the bequest. Both the letter and the spirit of the Rhodes will make it perfectly clear that the founder had boys in mind — public-school boys, and not graduate students of universities or even undergraduates. If the trustees, acting on the advice of American university men, should seek to evade or to nullify this carefully expressed purpose, they would be acting in bad faith so manifest that it could not be concealed by any sort of rhetorical juggling. The plea will not avail that the founder would have acted more wisely had he provided for a hundred American university students; that is possibly true, but the plain fact is that he provided instead for a hundred boys from the high schools and academies of this country. We cannot believe that the body of honorable and responsible men intrusted with the execution of these testamentary provisions will be persuaded to act as President Harper suggests that they may act; the case against such a course is too clear, and the declared purpose of Cecil Rhodes too evident, to warrant us in entertaining this suggestion save as a danger against which the trustees must be on their guard.

THE ELECTIVE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The Educational Commission of Chicago, in a recent report to the Mayor who created it, very truthfully and cogently said: "The function of a board of education, acting under the authority of state law, is to *represent the people* in the establishment and maintenance of the public school system." The report further says that the method of selecting the members of these boards has varied somewhat under different conditions, but that a large majority of the members are elected by the people direct. And in a foot-note to its report, the Commission adds that in fully nine-tenths of the school districts of the United States the elective system will probably be continued. It is also stated in the same report that in the larger cities of this country thirteen out of twenty-three obtain their boards of education by means of an election by the people. Especial reference is made to the last statement, because the purpose and scope of this article are confined chiefly to boards of education in the larger cities, to those school boards whose members serve without pay and are not required or expected to give much time or energy to the details of school work.

In a system which so vitally and directly concerns every family, and almost the entire population of the country, it seems unaccountable that the entire

adult population should not be allowed the right to an active and intimate participation in some of the forms of administration of the affairs of the public schools. Self-interest, the interest of the individual, is an exceedingly strong moving force. To say, as had been said by advocates of the appointive method of securing boards of education, that some of these interested people do not know enough to exercise the right of franchise intelligently and wisely is to say, in effect, that a representative form of government is a failure, and the intrinsic value of democratic institutions is mainly mythical. The number of persons is not large that is quite ready to admit that.

One of the most potent arguments in favor of the elective board of education is that such a board is removed from party politics, and is responsible directly to the people, which the appointive board is not; and that it compels the people to take an active and (ultimately if not immediately) an intelligent interest in the public schools. Such a board is thoroughly democratic; it comes from the people, to serve the people, and is easily approached by all the patrons of the school. The appointive method, on the other hand, denies to the great mass of the adult population the right to an active participation in school affairs. If the cause of public education were a purely local or class matter, it might be permissible to have less than the entire municipality, in any other than a representative form of government, for its constituency. But the public school system is not intended for a part of the community, nor for a class or clique or party. It includes among its patrons and friends the entire community; and, in our form of government, it is preëminently a democratic institution. Why, then, should it be argued that in the large cities, where the average of intelligence is probably as high as elsewhere, the management of the public schools should be withdrawn from the whole people and placed in the hands of one person, or of a few persons at most? Why should parents and relatives and friends of the school children be denied the right of taking some interest in matters which so deeply and closely concern them and their future?

It is said that the functions of the board of education are twofold, — executive and legislative; and that the executive function is one that must always be delegated. This is granted. But shall those most interested be denied the right to say how and by whom these functions shall be exercised? Is it a sufficient answer to say that one man, — the mayor, perhaps, who is usually an adept in political methods, but too often a mere tyro in practical educational methods, — knows better than the whole people who will best serve them on a board of education? And is he likely to exercise his knowledge and enforce his political methods more honestly and unselfishly than the entire community would do?

In a case within the writer's knowledge, where appointments were to be made on a board of education, the following were some of the arguments and influences used to obtain places on the governing board: "I desire to have Mr. A. appointed from my own ward," said John Smith, who had been instrumental in securing the enactment of the new school law; "he is a particular friend of mine, and a good Republican." He was appointed. Mr. Smith asked to have Mr. B. appointed from another ward. "He has not," said he, "the best educational or moral qualifications for the place. In fact, he has been implicated in some shady transactions, which I do not like to talk about. But there is a money difference between Mr. B. and myself, and if he gets this appointment the prestige which it will give him will make it possible for him to pay me the balance coming to me." He too was appointed. Mr. C. was appointed from another ward, not, as was stated at the time, "because he had any particular qualifications for the position, but the third political party must have at least one representative on the board, and this seems to be the only place left." Mr. D. was not appointed from another ward because another applicant had a stronger "pull" with the appointing power. The "pull" in this case was said to have been that the successful party was a profitable client of the appointing power.

It is difficult to conceive of a board of education being made up in a more reprehensible manner than has here been indicated. It is confidently asserted that the voting masses would never be guilty of motives so low, vicious, and unworthy, in casting about for persons to serve them as the school officers of a great city.

The Committee of Fifteen, — a committee of educational experts, who are doubtless honest and sincere, but who are not believed to be very close to the masses, and who take what may be called the professional view of the question, — favor the appointive board of education. They say, among other things: "We are strongly of the opinion that in view of the well-known difficulty about securing the attendance of the most interested and intelligent electors at school elections, as well as because of the apparent impossibility of freeing school elections from political or municipal issues, the better manner of elections is by appointment."

These objections are of questionable validity. "The most interested electors" would seem to be precisely the ones most likely to be present at school elections. Whether or not these electors are also "intelligent" may be a matter open for investigation. Undoubtedly, the majority of these "interested electors" can lay no claim to a college education, but they have a tolerably fair understanding of the theory and practical workings of a democratic form of government, and are "intelligent" enough to be good citizens. Whether or not it is possible, or even desirable, to "free school elections from political or municipal issues" depends very largely on the circumstances and conditions surrounding each particular case. Unquestionably, any "manner of election" is preferable

to appointments made as has been indicated in another part of this article.

In St. Louis, where there is an elective board of education, it is said that "if the school board is appointed, the source of power is a political factor which will make itself felt in the election and nomination of superintendents and school officers." Here is testimony which directly controverts the argument of the Committee of Fifteen, by insisting that the politics of the situation finds its most pronounced exemplification in the appointive rather than in the elective plan.

Dr. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, favors boards elected by the people, for the reason that such boards are more independent than those appointed by the mayor or by the courts. He is satisfied, in other words, that representation of the people is essential for cities as well as for states. In his bird's-eye view of the St. Louis public school system, Dr. Harris combats the position taken by the Committee of Fifteen in these words: "A board elected by the people direct, for the special purpose of managing the schools, and vested with limited powers of taxation, is sure to look after school interests, at least to the extent of the popular demand in that direction, and is not liable to be diverted from the care of the schools so much as to sacrifice them to other municipal interests." Certainly this is strong testimony from one of the leaders of educational thought in this country, one who has been intimately and prominently connected with the public school system for many years.

The argument of the Committee of Fifteen seems to be directed against the elective system chiefly because of fear of the contaminating influence of the lowest and most reprehensible forms of "practical politics." But personal considerations and favoritism in the official selection of school boards are far more portentous. If the elective system has proper safeguards in its working details, there is little danger of harm to the cause of public education. These boards should be large enough to apportion the work to the different committees, and not make the individual burdens great; each member should be a city officer, with no local or ward functions to perform; nominations should be made independently of and without recognition from political parties, by nomination papers; both sexes should be allowed to vote and to hold school office; one-third or one-half of the board should be voted for at a time, in order that the entire personnel of the board may not be changed suddenly. The school superintendent should be the servant of the board, and elected by it for a term of years. He should have much to say about purely professional and scientific work, — the selection of text-books; the examination, appointment, and promotion of teachers; the construction of school buildings. But these functions of the superintendent should not be absolute. "The court of last resort" should be the board of education upon all questions.

The public school system of this country is admittedly among the greatest of its institutions. It has become such because it has been administered directly by the people. The time is not likely to come when the control of our public schools shall be withdrawn from the many and placed in the hands of a few. It is freely admitted that the administration of our public schools in large cities, like the government of our larger municipalities generally, has not been wholly successful. Nevertheless, the relief must come, in both instances, primarily from the people themselves. And any attempt to withdraw self-government from the masses will, we confidently believe, not lessen but augment the dangers which threaten us. A larger patriotism, a more unselfish devotion to the cause of public education, will do much to solve the problem. But a minimizing of civic duty and responsibility, never.

DUANE MOWRY.

COMMUNICATIONS.

THE CASE "NOT PROVEN."

(To the Editor of THE DIAL.)

The stand taken against the word "proven" by some of your correspondents is somewhat amusing. One of them says, "The rhetorics are all against it." He might have added that most of the dictionaries and text-books on English grammar are against it; but that does not warrant him in maintaining that the use of the word is "a silly affectation of an unreal archaism." Good usage is not determined by makers of dictionaries and text-books; it must be determined by our best writers, — they are our higher courts of appeal. Professor Carruth is right: "The dictionary was made for man, and not man for the dictionary." The same is true with regard to text-books on grammar and rhetoric: we should make them servants for us, and not ourselves servants for them.

Good usage in English is simply a matter of fashion. We follow, of course, certain general laws; but these laws are flexible, and can be changed at any time that force, clearness, ease, or any other condition of our language, may require. To illustrate: the verbs *reach* and *teach* may, like other weak verbs, form the past tense by adding either *-ed* or *-t*. Why do we say *reached*, and not *teached*? or why *taught*, and not *raught*? Children, and foreigners who do not speak our language fluently, frequently use the form *teached;* Chaucer used *raught*, and Shakespeare sometimes used the same form. *Raught* is now out of fashion; and *teached* is not yet fashionable, and may never be. Since these verbs in the present tense are similar in form and pronunciation, there seems to be no logical reason why they should have different past tense forms. Your correspondents, who are distressed about the growing tendency of our modern writers to use *proven*, may regard this irregularity in the tense forms of these two verbs as a "perversion." But it is not a perversion; it is perfectly natural — as natural as any other fashion. RULE: *In English we use certain forms and expressions because we use them; we do not use certain other forms and expressions because we do not use them.*

Strong verbs in English, in accordance with a general

law, form the past tense by a change in the vowel sound; but the syllable *-ed*, *-d*, or *-t*, which is always added in the past tense of the weak verbs, is not added, and many of the verbs of this class take *-en* as the perfect participle ending. But this law, too, is flexible; some of the verbs of this class take the weak forms in the past tense and perfect participle. Note the following:

Present	*Past*	*Perfect participle.*
Cleave (to split)	clave or clove (cleft)	cloven (cleft)
Shear	shore (sheared)	shorn (sheared)
Stave	stove (staved)	stove (staved)
Thrive	throve (thrived)	thriven (thrived)
Shine	shone (shined)	shone (shined)
Shrive	shrove (shrived)	shriven (shrived)
	etc., etc.	

If our strong verbs become weak, we may expect our weak verbs to take forms analogous to those of the strong class. This, too, is perfectly natural. Here are a few of these "perversions" which may be distressing to some of your correspondents:

Present	*Past*	*Perfect participle.*
Cleave (to adhere)	cleft (clove or clave)	cleft (cloven)
Hide	hid	hid (hidden)
Chide	chid (chode)	chid (chidden)
Saw	sawed	sawed (sawn)
Strive	(strove)	strived (striven)
Show	showed	showed (shown)
Pave	paved	paved (paven)
Buy	bought	bought (boughten)

The strong perfect participle form of all these weak verbs (with the probable exception of *buy*) can be found in standard literature. The strong perfect participle of the verb *prove* is also found, and should of course be included in this list.

The form *paven* is rare. Milton uses it:

> "Rise, rise, and heave thy rosy head
> From thy coral-*paven* bed."—*Comus*, l. 886.

Foughten, a rare perfect participle form of the strong verb *fight*, is used by Tennyson whenever the metre or rhythm of his verse requires it:

> "Then quickly from the *foughten* field he sent
> Ulfius."—*The Coming of Arthur*, l. 109.
>
> "And ever since the lords
> Have *foughten* like wild beasts among themselves."—*Ibid*, l. 200.

Boughten has at present only a colloquial use; but if it should become fashionable,—that is, if our reputable writers should, by use of the word, find that they can add to their verse more emotional effect, or even more rhythmical effect, or can add to their prose more emotional effect, or even a mere mechanical means for attaining more force or ease,—it should then have equal recognition with *foughten*. If this form should gain recognition in literature it would probably be regarded by purists as a very "distressing perversion," because we would then have a verb with a double ending for its perfect participle, *-t* for the weak and *-en* for the strong ending. But this would be no worse than many other double forms in our language. Note, for example, the double plural in *cherubims*, a form found in the Bible; or the double feminine ending in *songstress*, a word now in good use.

Your correspondent quoted several sentences in which the form *proven* is used. The very fact that he found these examples in the "current issue of one of our better magazines," in an "editorial of what may, perhaps, be called our leading weekly," and in THE DIAL, ought to convince him that the word is not a "distressing perversion." If he will investigate further he will probably find that it occurs frequently in much of our best modern literature, both prose and verse. I find the following in Tennyson:

> "No boon is here
> But justice, so thy say be *proven* true."—*Gareth and Lynette*, l. 339.
>
> "Then, after summoning Lancelot privily,
> I have given him the first quest: he is not *proven*."—*Ibid*, l. 568.
>
> "O star, my morning dream hath *proven* true,
> Smile sweetly, thou! my love hath smiled on me."—*Ibid*, l. 979.
>
> "However you have *proven* it."—*Queen Mary*, Act. III., Sc. VI., l. 11.
>
> "The truth of God, which I had *proven* and known."
> —*Ibid*, Act. IV., Sc. III., l. 95.
>
> "Who is he
> That he should rule us? Who hath *proven* him
> King Uther's son?"—*The Coming of Arthur*, l. 68.
>
> "And that was Arthur; and they fostered him
> Till he by miracle was *ap-proven* King."—*Guinevere*, l. 296.
>
> "And railed at all the Popes, that ever since
> Sylvester shed the venom of world wealth
> Into the church, had only *proven* themselves
> Prisoners, murderers."—*Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham*, l. 161.

The strong perfect participle ending *-en*, for weak verbs, may not be found very often in Browning's verse. The style probably does not require it. But the form seems to be adapted to Tennyson's verse; and I see no reason why he should be condemned for using it. Moreover, I see no reason why any other writer should be condemned for using it, whenever it is found that it is better adapted to his peculiar style than the regular weak ending.

J. S. SNODDY.

State Normal School, Valley City, North Dakota,
August 12, 1902.

POE AND THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA.

(To the Editor of THE DIAL.)

The publication, by Prof. Charles W. Kent, of the exercises connected with the unveiling of the bust of Edgar Allan Poe in the library of the University of Virginia throws much light upon the conduct of the poet while a student of that institution, and his reasons for leaving it. The records of the University were scrutinized for entries bearing upon the charges against Poe for which he is so strongly indicted in Griswold's memoir. The student days of the accused covered a period of ten months in the course of the second year (1826) of the University's existence. Professor Kent reminds us of the turbulent and unrestrained character of university life in Poe's day, by saying that the attention of the faculty was directed principally

"to disciplining students guilty of the use of ardent and vinous liquors, or of gambling. There were open outbreaks as well as personal rebellion against rules. The University seemed in imminent peril from within, because of the unrestrained wildness, rampant disrespect, and obstreperous conduct of a body of immature young men, who mistook this new liberty for license."

Further on, he says:

"At one of the numerous trials conducted by the Faculty a certain witness deposed that there were not fifty students at the University who did not play cards. With as much readiness and no less accuracy he might have affirmed that not fifty of the fathers of these students were free from the same vice. The sentiments against it in the Faculty could not have been unyielding, for in 1825 three out of seven of the members wished gambling removed from the infractions punished seriously and transferred to the list of minor offences punishable by insignificant fines."

After referring to the countless records of trials of students guilty of drunkenness and dissipated conduct, the writer adds:

"But in all these records we nowhere find any mention of the name of Edgar Poe; and when a long list of students summoned to appear before the Albemarle grand jury was made out, Poe was not included, though many of his boon companions were. Poe was not, then, among the offenders known to university or civil law, but from the private testimony of his college mates it is evident that he did sometimes play

seven-up and loo, his favorite games. . . . His partner, afterwards a devout clergyman, and his adversaries, including frequently two friends who became respectively a well-known divine and a pious judge, were far better known to the University sporting circle than was Poe."

The testimony of Mr. Wertenbaker, the Librarian, seems conclusive as to Poe's practice of gambling. In referring to a visit to Poe's room, he is quoted as having said:

"On this occasion he spoke with regret of the large amount of money he had wasted and of the debts he had contracted during the session. If my memory is not at fault, he estimated his indebtedness at $2,000, and, though they were gaming debts, he was earnest and emphatic in the declaration that he was bound by honor to pay at the earliest opportunity every cent of them."

Alluding to this interview with the Librarian, Mr. Kent declares:

"Poe's confession to him contains the real reason why he never returned to the University. Edgar Allan Poe was not expelled, nor dismissed, nor suspended, nor required to withdraw, nor forbidden to return, nor disciplined in any wise whatsoever, at the University of Virginia; but Mr. Allan was shocked and incensed at the extent of his dishonorable 'debts of honor,'—which he at first refused to consider, but finally settled,—and determined to put his extravagant foster-son in his counting-room."

The purpose of the editor of this memorial of Poe is not to gloss over the irregularities of his student life, but rather to show the real facts. It is, and must be, regarded as an official vindication of Edgar Allan Poe from the suspicion of having been summarily dealt with by the faculty of the institution which now treasures his name as one of the most illustrious that ever adorned its rolls.

E. A. Forbes.

Louisville, Ky., August 7, 1902.

THE TRANSMUTATIONS OF A WORD.

(To the Editor of The Dial.)

Over seventy years ago, upon migrating from Massachusetts to Illinois, I first encountered the strange and barbarous word *Sockdologer*. I soon learned that it meant the finishing blow in a fist-fight; a severe stroke. Bartlett picked it up for his "Dictionary of Americanisms," and told its origin. It is a ludicrous transposition of the vocal elements of the word *Doxology*. Some wag noticed that the singing of the Doxology dissolved the worshipping concourse, the purpose of the assembling being fulfilled; if the purpose was a fight, the finishing blow dissolved the ring of spectators and abetters. He avoided the possible irreverence of a direct comparison of the different meetings by a comical metathesis of the sounds of *d* and *s*, as the Yankee farmer invoked the use of a stout needle upon the object of his wrath instead of pronouncing an eternal doom. *Sockdologer* answered the purpose as well as the more solemn word.

Bartlett's "Americanisms" and so-called "Sketches of Western Life" spread knowledge of the word, whose very barbarism made it as noticeable as an Indian. A contributor to the "Atlantic Monthly" of March, 1893 (p. 425), picked up "soedollager" and defined it. Some students of slang imagined a connection with the verb *to slug*, and turned it into "slogdollager." English "Punch" quite outdid American slangers in 1862, when it invented "slogdollagize"! Someone, with what notion I cannot see, made "stockdollager." As our American dictionaries admit slang when duly marked with the bar sinister, *sockdologer* is to be found in the "Standard" and in the "International."

Entering Illinois College in 1840, I found the word further transformed. The first syllable only was used in our game of "bull-pen," called also "sock-ball." Four players, among whom a ball was passed from hand to hand, stood at the corners of a square of about fifty feet; inside the square four other players danced about, who must dodge the swift balls sent at them by the players on the corners when these thought that they could score a hit. The phrases "sock him" and "sock it to him" were used. In this form the word reached England, — for the English keep up with American slang. It appears in "Hotten's Slang Dictionary" of 1860. Stormonth (1885) defines "Sock, in slang, to knock a man's hat over his eyes and nose by a smart blow"; and for this he gives a derivation from the Gaelic. Bartlett (edition of 1859) finds this use of the word local in America, and in Rhode Island only.

But now our western Americanism meets a real English word of like meaning. Halliwell finds in western England the word *sog*, a blow; and "Wright's Provincial Dictionary" gives *sock* as a Berkshire word meaning to strike a hard blow. Here is the singular concurrence in signification of a curtailed western waggery, — *sockdologer* shortened to *sock*, with an English provincialism.

If newspaperdom can confer respectability, *sock* may hold up its head; for a headline in a great Chicago daily introduced an extract from Governor Williams's message to the legislature of Indiana thus: "How he socked it to the Indiana Legislature." In an article in "The Atlantic" for June of this year, in discussing a style of newspaper editorials which the critic calls "editorialene," he names what he deems a favorite occupation of certain writers of that stuff, saying "It 'socks it to the satraps' at a safe distance."

The history of the word does not end here. From the tendency of people, especially of the illiterate, to substitute a familiar word for a similar unfamiliar one, *sock* was changed to *soak*. I do not remember this until after 1870; it must by that time have gained sufficient currency to attract my attention to it as no longer an idiotism, but an addition to our stock of slang. And now it becomes allied with other meanings of *soak*. A thing is soaked to prepare it for further use, or so that it may be not stiff but pliant and fit for use; so we hear that "A. has it *in soak* for B." Perhaps here is an indistinct consciousness of the English proverbial saying, "to have a rod in pickle." But people of the class that uses this slang are far more likely to have in mind the other use of *soak*, and to mean that the grudge is like a thing in the pawnshop.

All the former uses of *sock* now are found with the later slang. We hear "He soaks him with a hard ball," or "Let 'em soak it to him." Probably some new forms will spring from this development, as sideshoots sprout on a willow. I shall not be surprised if in a few years I shall discover that "an old soaker" is not a sot ruined by alcohol, but a hard hitter with fists; the epithet "old" referring not to age, but to eminence in degree, as "a high old time" may be only a debauch begun twelve hours before.

Such is the story of the changes of one word in the life-time of one man.

Samuel Willard.

Chicago, August 8, 1902.

The New Books.

Chronicles of a Famous Traveller.*

So far as material goes, nothing was easier than for Mr. E. Burton Holmes to transmute himself from the lecture platform into authorship. His pictures had been provided for the illustration of his lectures, and his lectures had been reduced to writing from the first. The combination of the two into seemly volumes became chiefly a matter of mechanics. But it is not so easy to take up the responsibilities of authorship and carry them to a successful issue. It has become a generally accepted belief among critics that stories which sound well in the telling often sound ill in the reading; and the reverse is quite as true. Subtract the personality of the speaker from many a man famous in the pulpit or on the rostrum, and his ringing periods appear in cold print as vacuous, jejune, and incoherent. Mr. Holmes's very success before large audiences in every part of the United States made this danger a real one in his case.

But it is a danger that may be dismissed. As the extracts presently to be given from his printed books will attest, he has a clear and forceful if somewhat ornate style; his writing everywhere is informed by a keen sense of the beauties of art and nature, and of the poetry in the universe; and his keen powers of observation and comparison supplement a sound intellectual training in enabling him to bring before his readers, as before his auditors, the beauties and fascinations of the scenes he has chosen for celebration from travels in many and far countries. In effecting this result, the photographs taken by himself or under his immediate supervision in almost every instance play an intimate and important part, connecting themselves with the subject-matter in a way seldom attained in any book.

Each of the ten volumes which are to form Mr. Holmes's completed work contains about four hundred pages and as many reproduced photographs. In each are three lectures, on countries geographically related, a fine colored plate serving as the frontispiece for every lecture. The first volume deals with the northern coast of Africa, its component parts entitling themselves "Into Morocco," "Fez, the Metropolis of the Moors," and "Through the Heart of the Moorish Empire," respectively. Here, as throughout the work, may be found displayed a keen sense of humor, never coarse, never indiscriminate, but interpreting the differences of the foreigner in a manner hardly possible otherwise. The following anecdote is illustrative:

"Here we may recall the story of the English clergyman, who, touched at the sight of all this misery and ignorance, resolved to tell the gospel-story to the people of Tangier — to make a public exhortation in the market place. With the greatest difficulty he secured a capable interpreter, for most of the hotel guides feared to assist him in his rash and dangerous crusade. When the pious preacher began his sermon in the market place, he was not only surprised, but thoroughly delighted at the reverence with which his glowing words, translated by his guide, were received by the attentive throng of Moslems. When he had finished, he was even urged to speak again. Undoubtedly the good man carried away a soul filled with joy because of the good seed he had planted here. One English newspaper chronicled the marked interest shown by the heathen in the words of Christian truth; but it is to be hoped that the good man will never learn that while he stood in the centre of this meeting-place and spoke, his diplomatic interpreter and guide not only held the respectful ears of the crowd, but possibly saved the missionary's life by cleverly turning the orthodox sermon into one of the favorite romances from the 'Arabian Nights.'"

When in Fez it was Mr. Holmes's privilege to attend a dinner given by the Moorish Secretary of the Treasury, "one of the highest and by a curious coincidence one of the richest dignitaries in Morocco," as he observes. This is what happened, after the party was seated at the table — a concession to prejudices against squatting on the floor:

"There appeared a huge round platter, three feet in diameter, on which had been erected a pyramid of chickens. To each of us an entire bird was given. Then our host, with deft fingers, tore his portion very neatly into shreds, picked out the choicest morsels of the chicken and passed them to us. Then followed pyramids of pigeons, then huge chunks of mutton, then sausages on spits; and that these sausages were not less than two inches thick and one foot long I am positively certain, because we each were compelled to take a whole one, and I remember my vain efforts to get it all upon my plate, three inches of protruding sausage threatening the table-cloth on each side. And every course was carved by our host, who used nothing sharper than his fingernails, and every time he came upon a morsel of especial daintiness, he courteously offered it to one of us. We were almost stuffed to death, for the consul warned us that to refuse the proffered tidbits would be a great affront. There were no sauces, no vegetables, nothing but meats roasted underground by slow fires that had burned all night. We had nothing with which to wash down this 'all too solid' food except sickly lukewarm rosewater. And not content with stuffing us and forcing us to drink that perfumed liquid, our host would every now and then give a signal, whereupon the

*The Burton Holmes Lectures. By E. Burton Holmes. With illustrations from photographs by the author. In ten volumes. Volumes I.–VI. Battle Creek, Mich.: The Little-Preston Co.

servants would spray rosewater down our backs and in our ears. Never was anything more welcome than the tiny cups of Turkish coffee that at last were brought to end our torture."

The second volume is concerned with Paris entirely, — one of the lectures with the city in general, and two with the Exposition of 1900. The third volume deals first with the Olympian games in April, 1896. More remindful and interesting souvenirs of these events could hardly be devised. The third volume, in addition to the Olympian games (the third modern Olympiad is to be celebrated in Chicago in 1904) contains an account of numerous ramblings through Greece and Thessaly, taking the reader to most of the spots famous in classical times. The fourth volume returns at first to the northern coast of Africa, treating of Algiers and other cities of the Barbary States. Mr. Holmes falls into an error in his dates when he speaks of the suppression of piracy as not taking place "until the then young American republic, emerging victorious from the War of 1812, had expended a little of her surplus energy in chastising the high sea robbers." Wandering afield among the Kabyles, we can sympathize with Mr. Holmes in the following:

"Imagine my surprise upon being accosted in one of these villages by a smiling Kabyle, who exclaimed with a distinctly American accent, 'Ah there, mister! I saw you on the Midway.' The speaker has spent six months in Chicago selling Kabyle jewelry at the World's Fair."

The succeeding lecture, on the "Oases of the Algerian Desert," deals with the Roman ruins of Timgad, the ancient Thamugas, and with the unexpectedly pleasant city of Biskra, proving to the American man of the cities that the comforts of home were sometimes nearer than he thought, as in this instance:

"When weary of dreaming in the garden, we may take a spin in the horse-car of Biskra, for this unique oasis is not without its progressive institutions. But the rails are very badly laid, and every few hundred yards there comes a lurch, followed by the suggestion of an earthquake, whereupon the French conductor politely requests the passengers to assist in replacing the car upon the rails. Thus a street-car ride, which with us is a passive enjoyment, becomes to the Biskran an excellent form of training for both nerve and muscle."

On this ride appears an amusing illustration of the same instincts that lead the man of civilization in America to buy fish to take home from an expedition near some stream, making the needful variations for a change of skies.

"Having passed the limits of the oasis, we behold close to the track upon a hillock a sight which makes our blood run cold — a gigantic lion, crouching as if about to spring. My friend feels for his revolver; I look despairingly at the distant palm-trees; the other passengers sit motionless, their faces expressive only of calm interest. We begin to doubt the excitability of the French. The car is brought to a standstill. With a painfully deliberate slowness a man in hunting costume takes a gun from beneath the seat. This reassures us; but why does he not make haste to shoot? Why does he wait for that fool of a photographer who is setting up his tripod in the face of such a danger? In wonder we await the dénouement. The man draws near with superhuman coolness; the huge beast, daunted, bows his head. The hunter stands over him in an attitude of victory. The photographic artist—a veritable hero—then secures proofs of the courage of the lion-tamer. And then at last the truth breaks in upon us as two poor Arabs appear, calmly tie a rope around the lion's neck, and serenely lead away the desert king. The poor old beast is blind and tame and harmless. His keepers make a living by renting him to amateur photographers or to ambitious sportsmen desirous of sending home convincing 'proofs' of their prowess."

The last of the three lectures in this fourth volume has to do with southern Spain, and the inevitable bull-fight. Here there is a wholly unexpected conclusion; for when Mr. Holmes came from the arena and saw the horses — seventeen in number — that were lying dead as the result of a Spanish holiday, "What do they do with all these bodies?" he asked of a boy standing by, and was promptly told, in Spanish, "Oh, they make sausages and ship them to America." And there was a pretty neat adaptation of an old phrase by a gypsy boy who replied to Mr. Holmes's statement that he was going to Paris — "*O Paris! el ultimo suspiro del Americano*" (the last sigh of the American).

The fifth volume takes up the two archipelagoes in the Pacific which have fallen under the American flag. Mr. Holmes is not in the least concerned with the political or economical aspects of Hawaii or the Philippines, — indeed, he could not very well be, — but there are many questions quite unanswered in his lectures. These chapters are divided from one another by an intermediate discourse on "The Edge of China," Hong Kong being inhabited in part by Admiral Dewey and Lieutenant Hobson at the time of his arrival there. Some of the problems awaiting us are outlined in the remarks on the Sandwich Islands.

"It is said that the Hawaiian people numbered 400,000 when the islands were discovered, and to-day there are scarcely 30,000 of them left. Fifteen years ago there were not a hundred Japanese in the islands. To-day Japan is represented by 25,000 of her hard-working peasants and her shrewd business men. China has sent more than 20,000 pig-tailed natives hither. Fifteen thousand Portuguese are now competing with them."

Mr. Holmes did not see anything of the

Philippine Islands outside of Manila, when he was there in 1899. In fact, he saw part of a combined land and naval attack by the forces of the United States in Bacoor Bay, while lying in quarantine in the harbor of Manila. The Filipino patriots were still in possession of the entire archipelago, with the exception of the capital city, — and they would doubtless have had that, if Dewey had not prevented them from driving Spain out of its last foothold in the group. Naturally, when he went ashore he associated with the Americans of the city, and these were almost all army officers. Some Americans are becoming dimly aware of the fact that the army and navy of any country are as favorable to war, professionally, as the lawyer is to clients, the physician to patients, or the priest to penitents. They were not questioning the liberation of the Filipino nation by the simple process of shooting all of its members who believed that the "consent of the governed" was in some way essential to government by Americans. Nor does Mr. Holmes question it; nor can he be blamed greatly, depending upon public favor as he does, if he goes a little out of his way to attest his sympathy with our Army of Liberation. There is a certain smugness in the following, however, which is not wholly pleasant:

"It is not my province to discuss the influence for good or evil of these Spanish friars in the Philippines. Their rule is ended, and the church, at last awake to their shortcomings in the past, will, without doubt, under the guidance of American Catholics, transform the institutions which the friars have founded and fostered in the Philippines into agencies for future good."

There is no hint here, as there is none in the usual American newspaper of to-day, that the government of the United States has adopted in the most solemn manner, by the Treaty of Paris, the friars as her own, and stands pledged before the world to place them not only in full possession of all their temporal rights and properties, but to secure them in the full performance of all their spiritual functions, — one of the several untoward results of the refusal to permit any native Filipino to have a voice in the provisions of this Treaty of Paris, when we paid $20,000,000 for 9,000,000 of him. If what Mr. Holmes says is true, — and there is not the slightest proof of it, up to this moment, — America has been as shamefully remiss in carrying out its treaty obligations as she has been in securing human rights to the native population. The position of the Church, meanwhile, is impregnable; and the only possible attitude of the American government toward the Papacy is one of abject pleading to be released from the effect of the treaty it deliberately entered into with its eyes wilfully shut. Some of the "new diplomacy" seems more lurid than effulgent.

In the last volume published, the sixth, Mr. Holmes gets back to safe ground once more, — that of his own country. He calls the volume, aptly enough, the "American Wonderland," and therein informs us of the Yellowstone Park, the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, and the Snake Dance of the Moki Indians. The national reservation, fifty-five by sixty-five miles in extent, which takes in the geysers, lakes, forests, and rivers of the Yellowstone region, is a severe test of anyone's powers of description, but its difficulties are not to be compared with those attendant on giving the outer world some adequate notion of what the Grand Cañon of Arizona really is to the bystander. At the beginning of this arduous undertaking, none the easier for being self-imposed, Mr. Holmes confesses his own failure, as well as the failure of his photographic apparatus, to delineate the singular majesty of this greatest of natural exhibitions. He makes his meaning clear enough, however, when he writes:

"I believe that when we behold that scene for the first time, a series of new brain-cells are [*sic*] generated, and until they have become sufficiently developed, the cañon withholds its message. In the average mind there is no place for an impression so unlike any before received. At first sight the mentality is dazzled. He who looks but once sees not the cañon. He who would know its glory must first prepare the tablets of his mind, — erase all preconceived images, and then with reverence approach the brink, and sitting there day after day teach his blind eyes and blinder sense to read through the medium of feeling the exalted message which this supremest of earthly scenes imprints upon the soul."

Mr. Holmes wisely avails himself of the language of Captain Clarence Edward Dutton, soldier and geologist, when he says:

"'It is useless to select special points of contemplation. The instant the attention lays hold of them it is drawn to something else, and if it seeks to recur to them it cannot find them. Everything is superlative, transcending the power of intelligence to comprehend it. There is no central point around which the other elements are grouped and to which they are tributary. The grandest objects are merged in a congregation of others equally grand. If any one of these stupendous creations had been placed upon the plains of central Europe, it would have influenced modern art as profoundly as Fujiyama has influenced the decorative art of Japan. Yet here are hundreds of them swallowed up in the confusion of multitude.'"

Yet it is not too much to say, these apologies having been duly made, that this lecture

does succeed, with its word-painting and photographic views, in really awakening in the student a conception of what it is that the cañon is to mean to him when gazed on with living eyes and without artificial aids to apprehension. No single sentence, nor paragraph, nor page, nor illustration, can be taken as typical of the means adopted to secure this admirable and praiseworthy result, but the article as a whole does go far toward its successful accomplishment.

The last lecture comes, after this, as something of an anti-climax, though it is well told, and does not in any particular exceed Mr. Holmes's really remarkable and evidently growing powers of description. It may be hoped, for all that, that at some future day another visit will be paid the Grand Cañon, and another attempt made to master its wonders and glories with riper powers and more accustomed hand. And the wish may also be expressed that an index of the entire work will be inserted at the close of the final volume, making it as serviceable for future reference as it is for present enjoyment while one is turning its attractive pages.

WALLACE RICE.

"THE IDEAL ROMAN SENATOR."*

It is a far cry from the formerly accepted view of the Emperor Tiberius to that of Mr. J. C. Tarver, who can even find in him "the ideal Roman Senator." His reign has been very generally held in the past as a notable example of the evils possible to a degenerate despotism. According to Mr. Tarver, the world has seen few rulers comparable to this same Tiberius in all the qualities which secure justice and peace and prosperity to the governed and deserve to be rewarded with affection and respect for the governor. It is known to most people, though Mr. Tarver reveals little if any knowledge in that direction, that the extremely unfavorable view has long since challenged seriously injurious criticism. Dr. Sievers and Adolf Stahr, in Germany, plead strongly for a more favorable view about half a century ago. Others, in Germany, England, and America, have wrought effectively in the same line, including Furneaux, the Clarendon Press editor of Tacitus, and the late Professor William F. Allen, whose edition of the first six books of the Annals is more generally used than any other.

But just as the soundest scholarship has already rejected many of the worst features of the old portrait as unhistorical, so it will surely reject the little less than saintly figure which comes to it under the name of Tiberius from the pencil of Mr. Tarver. If one may reason back from results to probable methods, it might seem that Mr. Tarver began by building up an ideal Tiberius upon the foundations laid in the eulogy by Velleius Paterculus. Afterward, one might imagine, he discovered with indignation that one Tacitus, regarded by many as an historian of some power, had taken a view of the subject in many respects radically different. Tacitus is therefore relegated to the position of a malignant pamphleteer, utterly incompetent to write history, powerful only to obscure the truth by the diabolical ingenuity of his masterfully deceptive rhetoric. The wickedness of his assault on the good, the merciful, the wise Tiberius, is enhanced by the fact that it was not really Tiberius whom he was after, Domitian being the inferential goal of his bitterness. When Mr. Tarver finds something in Tacitus peculiarly damaging to Tiberius if true, his mind seems automatically to go through some such logical process as this: "Tacitus may have found this in the Memoirs of the younger Agrippina; therefore he must have found it there, and therefore he did find it there. Now Agrippina would naturally have lied about Tiberius in any case; therefore she probably lied about him in all cases, and we may conclude with certainty that she did lie about him in this particular case." The result of such an attitude of mind toward the chief Roman authority for the reign of Tiberius is a book which cannot be seriously regarded as an important contribution to Roman history.

If Mr. Tarver had taken pains to give Tacitus a careful and unbiassed reading before taking up his own pen, he would have written a different book. The unjust severity of the condemnation visited upon Tiberius by generations past was based not so much upon what Tacitus really says as upon the carelessness with which Tacitus was read and interpreted. The rehabilitation of the Emperor's character, so far as a truthful rehabilitation is possible, depends almost entirely upon the Annals of Tacitus; and the work will be done most effectively by one who goes to the text unblinded by the presupposition of devilish malignity in an author who, with all his strong feeling as to the right or wrong of the transactions recorded, tried always to be fair.

* TIBERIUS THE TYRANT. By J. C. Tarver. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Students of far better temper and higher qualifications than are displayed by Mr. Tarver have found in the life and character of Tiberius a problem incapable of any entirely satisfactory solution. It is plain enough that Tacitus himself, with a much larger fund of evidence than is accessible to modern investigators, found it a point of great difficulty. To hold with Mr. Tarver that the supposed reign of terror which characterized his later years is a pure myth, based upon the slanders of disappointed members of the imperial household and Roman nobles embittered because he had wrested from them the privilege of plundering the Provinces, is to hold against inherent probability as well as positive evidence. The cloud overhanging those last years will not clear away, and the real problem is to reconcile it with equally certain facts as to the long years preceding. Tacitus admits — or, rather, positively states — that Tiberius led a life without reproach, according to the standards of the time, up to a point when radical changes of character for the worse are extremely rare. We say "according to the standards of the time," that no one may unconsciously follow Mr. Tarver in the assumption that what we are told of Tiberius warrants us in crediting him with the highest modern standards of spotless purity, up to the approach of old age. Any tribute to masculine character in the period in question would have to be very emphatic and very specific to warrant such interpretation. After Tiberius reached the throne, Tacitus finds signs of deflection from his former standards, a hateful cruelty becoming prominent during the career of Sejanus, and cruelty and lust together dominating the years which remained after Sejanus had fallen. Tacitus can account for this puzzling transformation in an old man only on the theory that the virtue of the former years was a mere veneering, assumed for the sake of policy, and that the catastrophe at the close was but the breaking out of natural instincts always present though so long and so successfully restrained.

We have already said that Tacitus himself seems aware of the difficulty of such an explanation. The careful student of to-day feels it still more, but he feels no less the difficulty of the assumption than a man of so high a level of character and attainment as Tiberius appears to have maintained could in his old age have fallen into the position of a cruel reprobate. The best suggestion yet made is that which finds the explanation in the taint of insanity present in the Claudian family. A cold, suspicious nature, thrown off its mental balance, could easily reach any depth of cruelty, and all the more so when in possession of irresponsible power. And with the same lack of a well-balanced mental restraint, a serious perversion of the sexual instincts, even in old age, is not so far out of the range of human probability as in itself to discredit evidence otherwise apparently reliable.

Mr. Tarver writes with a strong bias in favor of a genuinely monarchical government. In his view, Tiberius made about his only serious mistake in attempting to emancipate the Senate from his own control (an attempt, by the way, which Tiberius never really made at all). A congress or parliament is to him merely a "debating society," absurd as a governing body and useful only as it becomes a puppet in the hands of some managing power. He is incapable of realizing that anything of real value was lost when Rome passed into the hands of a single ruler. In all this he simply carries certain present tendencies of thought to the extreme, and may do some good in the way of stimulating a needed reaction against the tendencies themselves.

W. H. JOHNSON.

"THE RENDING OF VIRGINIA."*

A portion of Mr. Granville Hall's history of "The Rending of Virginia" is serviceable, inasmuch as it preserves official papers necessary to a judicial treatment of its subject; but the book itself is far from being written in a judicial manner. The strong anti-slavery and anti state-rights sentiments of the author color the whole treatment. The terms "Rebellion" and "Conspiracy" are met with *passim*, and the State of Virginia is not even given credit for logical sincerity in her advocacy of secession, the whole matter being treated as but an illegal pro-slavery movement. It is too late in the day for such a one-sided treatment of secession, and even impartial Northern critics are coming to admit as much.

But the chief burden of this large volume of over 600 pages is an effort to show that the formation of the State of West Virginia was justifiable and constitutionally legal. This is a point of view that might be discussed at length, but lack of space forbids. The act for the admission of West Virginia into the Union

* THE RENDING OF VIRGINIA. A History. By Granville Davisson Hall. Illustrated. Glencoe, Ill.: Archie C. Hall.

was passed by a vote of 28 to 17 in the Senate, and 96 to 55 in the House of Representatives. When it reached the President, he requested the opinions of his cabinet officers, and the cabinet was equally divided,—Messrs. Seward, Chase, and Stanton holding that the act was constitutional; Messrs. Welles, Blair, and Bates, that it was unconstitutional in that the State of Virginia had never given her consent to the division. A brief quotation from the opinion of Attorney-General Bates must suffice. He says (p. 494):

"The act of consent is less in the nature of a law than of a contract. It is a grant of power; an agreement to be divided. And who made the agreement? The representatives of the forty-eight counties with themselves. Is that fair dealing? Is that honest legislation? Is that a legitimate use of a constitutional power by the legislature of Virginia? It seems to me that it is a mere abuse, nothing less than an attempted secession, hardly valid under the flimsy forms of law."

The cabinet being thus evenly divided, the President had to decide for himself, after all; and his opinion is simply a case of special pleading, through which any constitutional lawyer could "drive a coach and four." Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, in the House, "took the bull by the horns." He said (p. 478) that he "was not deluded by the idea that we are admitting this State in pursuance of the Constitution of the United States." "It was a 'mockery' to say that the Legislature of Virginia had consented." He held, therefore, "that the State of Virginia had never given its consent; but this might admit West Virginia, not by virtue of any provision of the Constitution of the United States, but under one absolute power which the laws of war give us in the circumstances in which we are placed." He should "vote for the bill on that theory, and that alone." This theory is at least intelligible, and less specious than seeking constitutional arguments for an unconstitutional act.

We have no space to notice the seizure *vi et armies* of the counties of Berkley and Jefferson, for which there was not even the pretended consent of the few counties assumed to form the State of Virginia. The formation of the State of West Virginia was a Cæsarean operation, not a natural birth, and can only be defended by the excuse, as Mr. Stevens held, of the "war power"—that convenient excuse for many other questionable acts. A very different view of "The Dismembership of Virginia" will be found in an article with this title, written by Mr. William Baird, of Essex county, Virginia, originally printed in the "Publications of the Southern Historical Association" (January, 1898), and in a revised and enlarged form in the "Southern Historical Society Papers" (Vol. XXVI., 1898).

Mr. Hall gives (p. 535) a list of members of the Virginia State Convention of 1861; but the name of Hon. Muscoe R. H. Garnett, M.C., is omitted, and there are several misprints in the list, as there are, indeed, throughout the volume, one of the most vexatious being in the Preface (p. 14), George *Nelson* for George *Mason*, which will not mislead any Virginian, though it may mislead other readers. The work may serve as *mémoires pour sevoir*, but it is far from being such a "History" as one might expect from a participator in the events recorded. A more judicial temper is needed, for history does not let itself be written from a partisan point of view.

The lack of an index interferes very much with the use of the volume.

JAMES M. GARNETT.

THE YALE BI-CENTENNIAL AND COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY.*

Four volumes of the Yale Bi-Centennial publications serve, or might well serve, as a memorial to William Dwight Whitney, the man who won recognition for American scholarship as Franklin won recognition for American nationality. These are the volumes that deal with certain phases of Indo-European philology and general linguistics associated with the name of Whitney.

The volume that would suggest the work of Dr. Whitney to the widest circle of readers is Professor Oertel's "Lectures on the Study of Language." So swift is the march of science that its right of publication cannot be questioned thirty-five years after the appearance of "Language and the Study of Language," and twenty-seven years after the appearance of the "Life and Growth of Language." In those thirty-five years highly important investigations and statements of principle have come from Ascoli, Johannes Schmidt, Verner, Brug-

*LECTURES ON THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE. By Hanns Oertel. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

INDIA, OLD AND NEW. With a Memorial Address. By E. Washburn Hopkins, M.A., Ph.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE GREAT EPIC OF INDIA. Its Character and Origin. By E. Washburn Hopkins, M.A., Ph.D. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

ON PRINCIPLES AND METHODS IN LATIN SYNTAX. By E. P. Morris. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

mann, Osthoff, Leskien, Sievers, Paul, Sweet, Delbrück, Gustav Meyer, and Hirt. No book of a generation ago has weathered these years as have the two books of Whitney; they can even now confidently be placed in the hands of students. But, essentially sound as they are, they are not of to-day. Professor Oertel's book is. In fact, it is everywhere peeping into the to-morrow of the science. The latest investigations and the present state of controversies are duly registered. In other words, Professor Oertel is writing for the serious student of his science, the future bearers of its doctrines. Herein lies the strength and the comparative weakness of his book. It will have no such wide appeal as Professor Whitney's lyceum statements, and its very timeliness bears within it the stigmata of early eld. However, these are the accidents of the book. Its style is clear, its method logical, its subject-matter full and weighty, its vision wide and distinct. It is an admirable book of authoritative instruction, and as such will commend itself to an increasing body of students including many who are not, and do not care to be, specialists. Of the five lectures, the first, "Historical Introduction," and the last, "Semantic Changes," hold unchallenged possession of the field, so far as any discussions in the English language are concerned. But the book as a whole, even by the side of Paul's "Prinzipien," von Gabelentz's "Sprachwissenschaft," the two recent books by Sweet, and (to be catholic in our summary) the philosophical discussion by Wundt, has quite independent value.

"India, Old and New," by Professor E. Washburn Hopkins, consists of a series of essays and addresses of a more popular character. Its scope is wide, and shows again how varied the answer may be to the question, "What can India teach us?" Whether we deal with origins or with present-day problems, with literature, philosophy, religion, or politics, India has some message for us, some practical hint, touched usually with a poetic charm, which appeals to both reason and imagination. The first three essays, — "The Rig Veda," "The Early Lyric Poetry of India," and "Sanskrit Epic Poetry," — deal with the literary phases of old India in a manner that combines scholarly disquisition with popular illustration and summarizing. "A Study of Gods" illustrates how the far past is still living in India to-day. "Christ in India" is a closely reasoned reply to the theory that Christianity is borrowed from Buddhism, a fine piece of scholarly writing that is *not* an example "of the style in which grave historical subjects are treated by certain debaters, whose object does not seem to be to arrive at truth, but only to convince others." The ensuing chapters, on "Ancient and Modern Hindu Guilds," "Land-Tenure in India," "The Cause and Cure of Famine," and "The Plague," fix our attention more and more upon the living and throbbing question of modern India. The volume, to which is prefixed a memorial address in honor of Professor Salisbury, closes with an epilogue, or rather peroration, upon new India, from which we quote:

> "For, thanks to England, there is a New India, no longer enslaved but free, no longer blinded but enlightened, not perfect but striving for perfection, weak but great, potentially strong, awaking to-day to the full consciousness of a glorious past and the possibility of a still more glorious future. Old India endured and dreamed of God. Her bastards revile and dream of themselves. But New India thinks, her dream is of the future. And what is this noble dream? She dreams not of independence, but of political equality based on moral likeness. She seeks to prove that in fiscal and judicial administration all native officials can, without European supervision, be as incorruptible as are British officials, claiming that to proved ability and integrity is due a recognition of the Indian's right to share in the government of the Indian's country. So may her dream be accomplished, and may England, even at some seeming cost, be ready to meet her halfway, proving in her turn, and before it is too late, that she cares less for revenue than for righteousness."

One misses in the book the eloquence of the late Max Müller, but the sobriety of tone inspires confidence in the writer's solidity and authority, and the book is throughout readable.

"The Great Epic of India," by the same author, is a rather voluminous special investigation. It embraces a minute analysis of the Mahābhārata, its contents and metres, and thus arrives at a tenable view of the origin and constitution of the epic. The general student will be interested in the summaristic statement that "there is no 'date of the epic' which will cover all its parts (though hand-book makers may safely assign it in general to the second century B.C.)."

Professor E. P. Morris's book "On Principles and Methods in Syntax" is also a special study, but one that may well detain us somewhat longer. For the book is written with special reference to Latin; and most of us who teach language, or deal with it seriously, derive our syntactic organum, for better or worse, from our study of Latin. Professor Morris has gone resolutely to work to clear away the prepossessions that have robbed

studies in syntax of the fullest results. A first reading leaves one with a tinge of pessimism. But closer reading, and a little afterthought, shows that the book is even keener and surer in its suggestions and directions than in its criticism. The net result is a body of working principles that cannot but lead to productive work. Of his main contention the author has given a brief summary in a paragraph contributed to Professor Oertel's book.

"It may be laid down as a general rule that the significance of every concrete case form, mode form, or tense form depends to a considerable degree on their setting and on the meaning of the word to which case, mode, or tense endings have been added. So that it is really incorrect to speak of the meaning of the ablative ending (*e. g.*, *-o*) or of the subjunctive ending (*e. g.*, *-am*), as if all the meaning rested upon them. We ought to speak of the meaning of the ablative ending *-o* with such and such nouns, and of the subjunctive ending *-am* of such and such verbs. Even the person, in the latter case, would be an important semantic element."

The chapter on parataxis likewise merits special attention. The investigator must henceforth reckon with Professor Morris's theses; the student will find the book suggestive and stimulating; but oh, if only some of those pedagogues would read it, with whom section-numbers in Harkness, or Allen and Greenough, have ceased to be references and have become obsessions!

It is curious to note how the cry of *method* reëchoes through these four volumes. But it is a cry for correct and fruitful methods, or such at least as command consideration. All in all, the volumes fittingly hold a place in the secular series in which they are included. They appeal to the senate of scholarship and to the referendum of thought; they reflect the spirit of both university and the college, of both truth and culture. In both senses they are worthy of the great Whitney. GUIDO H. STEMPEL.

SOME RECENT BOOKS ON EDUCATION.*

In "An Ideal School; or, Looking Forward" Superintendent Search discusses many of the problems of contemporary pedagogy from the point of view of extreme individualism. After a chapter of original statistical data of value as showing the weakness of the present graded system, he devotes the remaining portion of the book to the school of the future, its location, its plant, its teachers, its studies, and its relations to the community. Among his novel suggestions are the following: All the schools of a city, from the kindergarten to the high school, are to be concentrated in one large park. The course of study and organization of the schools are to be completely reconstructed. Until the eighth year of a child's life, he shall attend only a play school or modernized kindergarten; three years will suffice for an alphabetic school where the "three r's" are acquired. For the grammar grades, an intermediate school would be substituted which would aim to develop the vital human interests of the children. The book should be read not only for its views, which are stimulating, but for the *résumé* which it incidentally gives of many of the important educational experiments of the last decade, and for the outline of elementary method from the subjective or child-study standpoint. The volume has, however, many of the defects of a radical plea. It is loosely put together, exaggerations abound, and it is lacking in judicial quality. Some of the references are inexact, and the evidence cited to support the alarmist position as to over-pressure in the schools is insufficient, while some of the authorities are so old as to be practically worthless. In a book of its general purpose, these defects may be considered of minor significance. In general, it deserves the popularity which it has already achieved.

Mr. H. Thiselton Mark, of Owens College, Manchester, has collected his general impressions of American schools in a volume entitled "Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education." He examined many phases of education, in order to characterize the American spirit; the plans of school organization, methods of classification, training of teachers, child study, the kindergarten, women's clubs, colleges and universities, the educational press, — all these pass successively under his microscope. The resulting conclusions may be recommended as an antidote to the recent utterances of Professor Münsterberg. "There is probably nothing more beautiful in education anywhere than the school-life of the children in the best primary and grammar grades. Here the school work becomes the child's willing expression of himself, the school life is part and parcel of his

*AN IDEAL SCHOOL; or, Looking Forward. By Preston W. Search. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

INDIVIDUALITY AND THE MORAL AIM IN AMERICAN EDUCATION. The Gilchrist Report presented to the Victoria University March 1901. By H. Thiselton Mark. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.

THE ART OF TEACHING. A Manual for Teachers, Superintendents, Teachers' Reading Circles, Normal Schools, Training Classes, and Other Persons Interested in the Right Training of the Young. By Emerson E. White. Chicago: The American Book Co.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS, AND METHODS OF INSTRUCTION. Selected Papers. By S. S. Laurie, Professor of the Institutes and History of Education, University of Edinburgh. New York: The Macmillan Co.

PESTALOZZI AND THE FOUNDATION OF THE MODERN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By A. Pinloche, Professor in the Lycée Charlemagne and the Ecole Polytechnique, Paris. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION. By E. L. Kemp, Professor of Pedagogy, State Normal School, East Strondsburg, Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

HISTORICAL SOURCES IN SCHOOLS: Report to the New England History Teachers' Association, by a Select Committee. New York: The Macmillan Co.

own natural life, which it supplements, enlarges, and interprets" (p. 246).

The aim of "The Art of Teaching," Dr. Emerson E. White's concluding contribution to his pedagogical series, is to set before the elementary teacher clear-cut standards and tests of efficiency by which she may judge her own work. The first section of the volume treats of the fundamental aims of good teaching, as exemplified in drills, oral instruction, examinations, class or individual instruction, etc. The latter half offers suggestions in regard to the different subjects of the elementary curriculum. On the theoretical side Dr. White is conservative, perhaps unduly so in his estimate of the services of philosophy and genetic psychology to education; but his treatment of every-day schoolroom problems represents a wealth of mature judgment which few teachers can afford to dispense with.

Prof. S. S. Laurie has issued a new edition of his selected papers on "The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction." Two new articles, one on university education and another on history and citizenship in the school, are included. The essays naturally fall into three groups: (1) those dealing with the professional training of teachers; (2) those treating of the functions of different grades of schools (primary, secondary, university); and (3) those handling problems of the curriculum and the internal management of schools. These articles are thoughtful and well-prepared discussions of important issues in education, and are written in a philosophic spirit. While written to meet special occasions in Great Britain, Professor Laurie has so well viewed the problems in their wider aspects that an American can read them with profit. The paper on "The Religious Education of the Young" is one which might well be republished in cheap form for popular use.

Professor Pinloche's long-heralded volume on "Pestalozzi and the Foundation of the Modern Elementary School," which concludes the "Great Educators" series, is something of a disappointment, largely because of its unsympathetic picture of Pestalozzi's personality. The larger portion of the book is given to a systematic statement of Pestalozzi's views on education culled from his own writings; this will be of great service to students, as some of the originals are not accessible in English translations. This section would have been of more value had Professor Pinloche explained Pestalozzi and compared his ideas at different periods of his career, — Pestalozzi's emotional outbursts being at times unsatisfactory expressions of his own views. The concluding chapters on Pestalozzi's influence are slight and scrappy. The book contains signs of having been written in haste.

In four hundred pages, Professor Kemp has written a new history of education, which covers the entire territory from the ancient Egyptians to Herbert Spencer. More space is given to accounts of the educational systems of modern Europe and America than is usual in similar treatises, and less attention is paid to the personality of the educational reformers. Professor Kemp writes forceful, idiomatic English, devoid of technical expressions; consequently the book is better suited to the needs of immature students than most of its rivals for popular favor. At times, the author's popular style carries him beyond the pale, as in the case of his description of Rosmini as "a *brainy*, learned, and pious Italian priest." A useful list of books is appended, which might have been strengthened by more descriptive notes, and the initials, at least, of the authors.

A select committee of the New England History Teachers' Association, consisting of C. D. Hazen, E. G. Bourne, Sarah M. Dean, Max Farrand, and A. B. Hart, has enriched the literature of method with one of the best pieces of descriptive bibliography yet published, in its report on "Historical Sources in Schools." The first part of the report consists of a brief and conservative discussion of the source method of teaching history. The four remaining sections describe the sources, (1) of ancient history, (2) mediæval and modern European history, (3) English history, and (4) American history; the main divisions thus corresponding to the recommendations of the Committee of Seven. The list of sources, arranged topically, is not the usual mere collection of titles, publishers, and prices, but a series of valuable descriptive and critical paragraphs which no teacher of history in secondary schools can afford to be without.

HENRY DAVIDSON SHELDON.

BRIEFS ON NEW BOOKS.

Educational and social essays.

Although Mr. Walter H. Page has edited, and edited with eminent success, the most "literary" of our magazines, we fancy he would hardly like to be called a man of letters. To him the world is a place in which to do things rather than a place to live in and write about, and the literature that tells how things are done, or that provides an impetus for the doing of others, is the sort of writing that most appeals to him. He is an idealist of a very practical sort, familiar with many political and social problems at first hand, and having a firm grasp upon the solid facts of the situations he chooses to discuss. These characteristics are very evident in the little book which he calls "The Rebuilding of Old Commonwealths" (Doubleday), and which is made up of two addresses and one magazine essay, all produced within the last five years. These papers deal with the South, for that is the region of the author's birth and boyhood; their message is that of a man who has not got far enough away from his early environment to have his sympathies dulled or his understanding made sluggish. Public education considered as the corner-stone of the demo-

cratic edifice is the theme of these papers. In the first of them, "The Forgotten Man," Mr. Page speaks some home truths to the people of North Carolina, his own native State. Not in any carping spirit, but with stern insistence upon the logic of the case, he points out that the State spends $3.40 per year per pupil for its public schools, and that in consequence one white person in every four is illiterate, while nearly three hundred thousand North Carolinians born have impoverished the commonwealth by finding homes in other States. Here is "a slight hint of the cost of ignorance and of the extravagance of keeping taxes too low." The substance of this address is condensed in the admirable epigram, "We pay for schools not so much out of our purses as out of our state of mind." Mr. Page's second paper, "The School that Built a Town," is a plea, ringing if not impassioned, for the sacredness of the educational calling as the "one true science of building a stable and broad-based democratic social structure." To his hearers he says, "Whatever others may be doing, you are working with the central secret of human progress," and the school audience which he is addressing is inspired by his story of how the public school system of Northwood raised the life of the entire community to a higher plane. "The Rebuilding of Old Commonwealths," the third and last of these papers, is a keen diagnosis of the social conditions of the South, which shows that slavery is now, as it was fifty years ago, mainly responsible for the discouraging facts of the situation, and again pointing to public education as the sole efficient agency for the establishment of a truly democratic social order. This paper, like the other two, is stimulating and suggestive in the highest degree, and deserves to find the widest possible audience of readers.

The latest text-book of English literature.

The preparation of a school text-book of the history of English literature presents a task of constantly increasing difficulty. The number of good texts is already considerable, and there is not much latitude possible as to the selection or omission of facts. Nor is there much more in the matter of critical estimates; for authoritative opinion concerning the chief English authors is fairly well crystallized, and a new writer has no right to be original. Beyond an occasional variation of the accent, or shading of the emphasis, he cannot go if he is to be a safe guide for young students. He may express his own opinion concerning the relative supremacy of Shelley and Wordsworth, or of Tennyson and Browning; he may construct his own hierarchy of the Elizabethan dramatists; he may correct erroneous popular judgments. But he is under bonds not to be biassed or sensational or erratic in the views which he promulgates. The latest "History of English Literature" (Scribner) is the work of Professors William Vaughn Moody and Robert Morss Lovett, and its controlling principle is stated in the following words: "The fact has been held constantly in mind that literature, being the vital and fluid thing it is, must be taught, if at all, more by suggestion, and by stimulation of the student's own instinctive mental life, than by dogmatic assertion. More than any other branch of study, literature demands on the part of the teacher an attitude of respect toward the intelligence of the student; and if at any point the authors of this book may seem to have taken too much alertness of mind for granted, their defence must be that only by challenge and invitation can any permanent result in the way of intellectual growth be accomplished." This is the apology of the authors, if any apology is needed, for having written their book, not in the dry fashion of the ordinary school-text, but with the literary grace and delicacy of phrase that we look for in the critical essayist who addresses an adult audience. They have produced the best-written elementary text-book of the subject that we have ever read; whether it will prove proportionally excellent as a teaching manual is a matter of some doubt. It is a book that can be read straight through with pleasure; whether it is a book that can be profitably studied, paragraph by paragraph, by crude young minds of slight literary range, is quite another matter. What we have said may be illustrated by a few sentences from the characterization of Hamlet. "The core of his purpose is always firm; and it is one of the ironies of circumstance that Hamlet has come to stand in most minds for a type of irresolution. This misunderstanding of the character is largely due to the exaltation of excitement in Hamlet, which causes his mind, even in the moment when he is pursuing his purpose with most intentness, to play with feverish brilliancy over the questions of man's life and death; which makes his throbbing white-hot imagination a meeting-place for grotesque and extravagant fancies; and which leads him, so to speak, to cover the solid framework of his enterprise with a wild festoonery of intellectual whim, to envelop it in fitful eloquence, swift and subtle wit, contemptuous irony and mordant satire." Fine as this unquestionably is in thought and expression, it must remain meaningless verbiage to nine-tenths of the young readers for whom it is intended. But even if this book should prove ill-adapted to its immediate purpose, there is matter for congratulation in its having been produced. It stands in refreshing contrast to the formal text-books, and is the book that we should next recommend to students and readers who have graduated from their Stopford Brooke's "Primer." It is well proportioned, giving much space to the last two centuries, yet not filling that space with superfluous names, titles, and dates. The writers have felt that an author worth mentioning at all was worth discussing with some seriousness, and this has been their method throughout. The "Reading Guide" at the end occupies twenty-five pages, and is of great value. We have noticed a few slips, but they

are hardly worth mentioning. They include such things, for example, as the misquotation "broadening down from precedent to precedent," and the statement that "The Cloister and the Hearth" is a story "of the life of Erasmus," instead of dealing with the parents of Erasmus.

Records of a vanished craft.

So completely has wood-engraving been superseded by the modern "process" methods of picture reproduction that we of to-day are apt to forget or overlook the large part played by the graver's tool in the history of popular art. Up to little more than a generation ago, engraving on wood was practically the only method of reproducing an artist's drawing for the purposes of the printing press; wood-engraving was then a flourishing profession, and the engraver was a mighty personage upon whose skill the artist must depend entirely for the impression of his work received by the general public. An interesting realization of this vanished condition may be gained from the volume entitled "The Brothers Dalziel" (Dutton), a record, autobiographic in form, of the work of George and Edward Dalziel, two noted English wood-engravers. For half a century (1840–1890) these brothers, perhaps the leaders of their profession in England, worked in close association with many of the foremost artists of the period, not only in the reproduction of their drawings on the block, but also in the superintendence and publication of elaborate art-books, such as "Dalziel's Arabian Nights" and "Dalziel's Bible Gallery." The last-named collection includes some of the most notable work of what has been called the golden age of English illustration. To its preparation the Dalziels devoted years of patient labor and many thousands of dollars, enlisting the services of such artists as Lord Leighton, Burne-Jones, Holman Hunt, Ford Madox Brown, and Mr. G. F. Watts. Yet the enterprise was financially almost a complete failure, some two hundred copies being the extent of the sales. Messrs. Dalziel's informal account of their half-century of work is liberally sprinkled with appreciative letters (many reproduced in fac-simile) from the artists whose blocks passed through their hands. There is one from Rossetti, in which he speaks of two engravings (evidently those for the "Moxon" Tennyson) as "now highly satisfactory and well repaying all your pains." It will be recalled that Rossetti's first experience with the Dalziels, in connection with the drawing for Allingham's "The Maid of Elfin-Mere," was one of sore trial for both artist and engraver, and the inspiration for such pleasantries as the following:

> "O woodman spare that block,
> O gash not anyhow!
> It took ten days by clock,
> I'd fain protect it now.
> *Chorus* — Wild laughter from Dalziel's workshop."

But, with due allowance for Rossetti's humorous exaggeration, it must be said that his tribulations were owing rather to his own ignorance of the technical requirements in the case than to any fault of the engravers. That the relations of the Brotherhood with their many exacting clients were generally of the most genial and satisfactory sort there is ample testimony in these pages. Of the thousands of blocks sent out from their workshop, the Messrs. Dalziel have selected the most noteworthy for reproduction in the present volume. There are upwards of 150 plates in all, including specimens of the work of nearly every prominent English artist of the earlier Victorian period who has worked in black-and-white. The collection thus brought together is a remarkable one, which the art-lover should not overlook. We trust the kindly memory of the Brothers Dalziel and their distinguished work may be kept alive for many a day by this handsome volume.

Student life at Oxford.

The publication of Mr. John Corbin's "An American at Oxford" (Houghton) has an unanticipated timeliness, coming, as it does, just after the announcement of the Rhodes bequest. Every young man in America who is ambitious to become a Rhodes scholar at Oxford will be certain to want this book, to say nothing of the many others who will be attracted to it as an interesting contribution to educational literature. What Mr. Corbin does is to give us, in simple and sometimes too colloquial language, an account of the Oxford student's life, in and out of doors, from the time of his matriculation to the time when he leaves the venerable city of the Isis armed with his pass or honors degree, as the case may be. We know of no other book that gives precisely this information, which is frequently of a nature to impress very curiously the youth whose ideas of university life are derived from experience of American or German institutions. We are told about the provisions for the comfort of students, their breakfasts from the college kitchen, their dinners in hall, their cloistered conditions of life, and their athletic sports. Emphasis is properly placed upon the social aspects of life at Oxford, for in these aspects may be found the most distinctive difference between the English universities and those of other countries. We regret to notice that Mr. Corbin thinks that the Rhodes trustees "should be most vigorously urged to select the scholars from the graduates of American universities." That the founder of the scholarships had no such idea in his mind is perfectly evident from the terms of his will, and this suggestion is tantamount to a plea for bad faith on the part of the executors.

The case of the Short Story.

Mr. Sherwin Cody is one of a number of writers who have recently been trying to make out a case for the artistic differentiation of the short story from the more extended work of fiction. They claim that the short story is not a novel in miniature, but a distinct literary form, with its own laws and mode of development. The argument is ingenious, but

it has always seemed to us a little sophistical, and the question is at least still open for debate. Mr. Cody has lately illustrated his thesis by collecting a dozen or more of typical examples, and publishing them in a volume with general and special introductions. This volume is entitled "Selections from the World's Greatest Short Stories" (McClurg), and, whatever we may think of the editor's thesis, the volume is a good one to read and to possess. As to the selection made, there are many possible opinions. Six of the stories are "Patient Griselda," "Aladdin," Balzac's "A Passion in the Desert," Irving's "Rip Van Winkle," Poe's "The Gold-Bug," and Hawthorne's "The Great Stone Face." There can hardly be any question about the claim of these six to be included in any representative collection, and the same may perhaps be said of the "Christmas Carol" of Charles Dickens. But we have grave doubts concerning "A Princess's Tragedy," from Thackeray's "Barry Lyndon," as also concerning the selections made from Maupassant and Mr. Kipling. As for the incongruity of putting things by Mr. J. M. Barrie and Mr. Arthur Morrison in such a collection, there can be no doubt at all. And where is Tourguénieff, the greatest of all masters of this form of literature?

A new treatise on Zoölogy.

The labor involved in the preparation of a modern manual of Zoölogy is so great and the expense of illustration so considerable that there is a growing tendency to make such treatises somewhat of an international undertaking. An illustration of this effort to obliterate national limitations is to be found in Messrs. Shipley and McBride's "Zoölogy" (Macmillan), which has been written with both the English and the American constituency in view. The English training of both authors gives, however, somewhat of a British bias to the terminology, and the sources of illustration are less American than students in this country might wish. This affects the work in question merely in the matter of convenience to users of the book upon this side of the Atlantic. Science cares little for political boundaries, and good books from any land are welcomed in all. It has been the aim of the authors to prepare an elementary treatise in which the subject should be developed as the reader advances. To this end the earlier chapters deal with the fundamentals of the science in an elementary way, while the later ones are more advanced both in method and matter. The authors have taken great liberties in the arrangement of the systematic portion of the text, to the consternation of those who rejoice in uniformity of classification and arrangement. Many new figures, either from original drawings or original sources, appear in this text for the first time. The compass of the book, and the skill with which the authors have chosen the matter from the great array of results of the investigations of recent years, render their manual one of our best short treatises on zoölogy.

A timely volume on forest culture.

The forest, as a living perpetual resource of the nation, is just beginning to claim its own with the American people. Time was when we looked to it merely for lumber, or sought only to rid the land of its presence; but now its relation to water supply, and thus to irrigation and navigation, is added to the prospect of a lumber famine. Growth of interest in silviculture is also evidenced by the establishment of courses of instruction in our universities, and the increase in our national forest reserves. The claims of recreation and sport are likewise potent, since they enlist æsthetic interests in the cause of forestry. All these considerations tend to make Professor John Gifford's book on "Practical Forestry" (Appleton) both timely and attractive. It is a popular presentation of the relation of trees to the manifold phases of our civilization, and to the phenomena and forces of nature, to soil, flood, and wind; to the landscape and to health. The agencies operative in the extension and limitation of forests, and methods for their formation and improvement, are discussed, and the industries which have been built upon their products are described. Brief reference is made to tropical forests, and the public reservations in this country are enumerated. The scope of the work, the suggestions for economic utilization of the forest, the condemnation of wholesale destruction and of fire waste, combine to make the book a force in the education of the reading public to the importance of prompt action in all public questions affecting our woodlands. Owners of country homes, and all lovers of nature, will find in it many suggestions of value.

An attractive Psychology.

Text-books in Psychology, though by no means the barren and dull contributions that they are supposed to be, are yet rarely of the type to make attractive general reading, — that of Professor James being always the notable exception. What may be demanded of a text is that it shall prove both helpful and attractive to the student who approaches the subject-matter with a student's interest and attitude. The recent text by Dr. Lightner Witmer of the University of Pennsylvania (Ginn & Co.) complies with these requirements to more than the usual extent. The specific traits of the book are the selections of its illustrative material, whereby charts and diagrams and illustrations enable the student to prove for himself many of the essential principles, and so in a modest measure furnish him with a miniature psychological outfit of an experimental kind; and again the selection and treatment of portions of the field best suited to the illustration of the facts and principles of mental analysis. Such a selection necessarily omits a great deal that a student might care to know; but by confining the attention to those portions that are really pedagogically suitable, the text gains in intent where it loses in extent. Dr. Witmer has produced a volume

with sufficient novel features to attract notice on the part of teachers and students of psychology. He has not sacrificed novelty to serviceability, and has maintained a consistent and tested plan of presentation throughout.

Observations on men and women.

"'Tween You an' I" is the grammarless title chosen by Max O'Rell to suggest the unpretentious and informal character of his latest collected observations upon men and women (Lothrop Co.). If one questions its felicity, the answer comes readily enough; we do not go to Max O'Rell for nicety of phrasing. What we do go for, we get in the new book, which, while it is never profound, and is often trite, contains plenty of amusing anecdotes with much witty criticism and interesting generalization. From the view-point of his cosmopolitan career, the author compares national characteristics, noting such matters as the philosophic cheerfulness of the French, the astounding length of the American memory, or the unfortunate assumption of the Englishman that he may be as disagreeable as he pleases when he travels. The author dispenses good advice in epigram to all the world and his wife, present and prospective, and analyses and classifies "Her Royal Highness Woman" as she appears in her endless variety to her subject man. His work strikes the popular note indicative of the lecturer and journalist; and in spite of the fact that there is almost too much of it, is clever and timely enough to find many readers.

BRIEFER MENTION.

"A Complete Geography," by Professors Ralph S. Tarr and Frank M. McMurry, is the second volume of the "two book series" of these successful textmakers, and is indeed a complete treatment of the subject for all ordinary school purposes. The maps alone number over a hundred, and the other illustrations, mostly photographic, are too numerous to count. The work is thoroughly modern and scientific in its treatment of the subject, and, best of all, is not an ungainly quarto, but a volume of reasonable dimensions, with a page not much larger than that of other school books. The Macmillan Co. are the publishers.

In modern language texts, the American Book Co. send us M. Jean de la Brète's "Mon Oncle et Mon Curé," edited by Miss Elizabeth W. White; an "Advanced French Prose Composition," by M. Victor E. François; and Herr von Wildenbruch's "Das Edle Blut," edited by Dr. Charles A. Eggert. From Messrs. Ginn & Co. we have a two-volume work on "Spanish and English Conversation," by Miss Aida Edmonds Penney. The Macmillan Co. publish an edition of Racine's "Athalie," edited by Professor F. C. de Sumichrast. Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co. publish the Comtesse de Ségur's "Les Malheurs de Sophie" (two stories only), edited by Miss Elizabeth W. White. Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. publish Fulda's "Unter Vier Augen" and Bendix's "Der Prozess," both comedies in one volume, edited by Mr. William Addison Hervey.

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With the publication this month of "The Child and the Curriculum," by Prof. John Dewey, the University of Chicago Press announces the completion of its valuable series of "Contributions to Education."

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"The Story of the Amphibians and the Reptiles," by Messrs. James N. Baskett and Raymond L. Ditmars, is a new volume in the series of "Home Reading Books" published by Messrs. D. Appleton & Co.

Messrs. P. Blakiston's Son & Co. have issued the first number of "The Medical Book News," a bi-monthly publication designed to furnish information of use to medical men in selecting books pertaining to medicine and the allied sciences.

"The Isoperimetric Problem of a Given Surface," by Professor Oskar Bolza, and "The Production of Muscular Twitchings," by Professor Jacques Loeb, are two further preprints from the forthcoming Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago.

"An Introduction to Physical Geography," by Messrs. Grove Karl Gilbert and Albert Perry Brigham, is a new "Twentieth Century Text-Book" published by the Messrs. Appleton. It is prepared for the early high school course, is concrete in treatment, and amply illustrated.

"The Middle Ages," by Professor Philip Van Ness Myers, is a revision of the first half of the author's successful "Mediæval and Modern History" of sixteen years ago. It will presently be followed by "The Modern Ages," both publications coming from Messrs. Ginn & Co.

The University of Chicago Press announces a reprint, edited by Prof. Frederic Ives Carpenter, of "The Life and Repentaunce of Marie Magdalene," a sixteenth-century morality play by Lewis Wager, now for the first time reprinted and provided with editorial apparatus. Another volume of literary interest soon to appear from the same press, is "The Diary and Correspondence of Wilhelm Müller," edited by Dr. Philip S. Allen and Dr. James T. Hatfield.

We note with pleasure the signs of prosperity and progress in our old friend under a new name, "Out West," formerly "The Land of Sunshine," Mr. Lummis's vigorous magazine of the Pacific Coast. Changing the name of a periodical is always hazardous, but in this case the wisdom of the step seems vindicated, and the new magazine has an air of maturity and fulness corresponding with its broadened field and title. The August number gives the third section of Mr. Lummis's remarkable series of papers, descriptive and expository, on California, which, with their profuse and novel illustrations, would make any magazine conspicuous. The illustrations as a whole seem better than usual in this number, and the reading matter of a

more even and inviting quality. The editorial writing, of course, does not fail in interest, and never can so long as it continues to be charged with Mr. Lummis's unhampered fervor of conviction and flavored with his breezy and enlivening personality.

The "History of the Roman People," which Dr. William Fairley has translated (and to a certain extent edited) from the French of Professor Charles Seignobos, represents the best form of scholarly French text-book, and is now offered for use in American schools and colleges. The author writes with graphic power, literary charm, and philosophical purpose, which qualities are mostly retained in this adaptation of his work. Messrs. Henry Holt & Co. are the publishers.

In a review of Mr. Bryce's "Studies in History and Jurisprudence," in THE DIAL for July 16, in discussing the chapter on the old constitution of Iceland it was incidentally remarked that "Mr. Bryce probably never visited the historic isle," etc. This surmise is evidently an error; for a correspondent calls our attention to a passage from the author's earlier work, "The American Commonwealth," in which he says: "Sixteen years ago I travelled in Iceland with two friends" (introductory chapter, p. 9 of ed. of 1888).

A revised edition of Mr. G. A. Wentworth's "College Algebra" is published by Messrs. Ginn & Co. The same publishers also send us a revised edition of Dr. Alfred P. Gage's "Introduction to Physical Science," and a new "Manual of Astronomy" by Professor Charles A. Young. The latter work occupies an intermediate position between the author's two earlier texts, which have been drawn upon freely in its preparation. It is a leather-bound volume of over six hundred pages, with many illustrations.

A fifth volume of "Old South Leaflets" brings together a new collection of twenty-five of these valuable reprints of source material, and will be welcomed by every teacher of American history. The contents are too varied for any general description, but we may note the group of eight that deal with the early exploration and colonization of the new world. The remaining pamphlets deal with subjects as far apart as More's "Utopia," Dante's "De Monarchia," Bede on Augustine, Horace Mann on free schools, Grotius on "War and Peace," and the Hague Conference.

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[The following list, containing 57 titles, includes books received by THE DIAL since its last issue.]

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List of References on Reciprocity. Compiled under the direction of A. P. C. Griffin. 4to, uncut, pp. 38. Government Printing Office.

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